DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 381 036 FL 022 896

AUTHOR	Montone, Christopher L., Ed.
TITLE	Teaching Linguistically and Culturally Diverse Learners: Effective Programs and Practices. Proceedings of an Institute Hosted by the National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning (Santa Cruz, California, June 28-30, 1994).
INSTITUTION	National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning, Santa Cruz, CA.
SPONS AGENCY	Office of Educational Research and Improvement (ED), Washington, DC.
PUB DATE	95
CONTRACT	R117G10022
NOTE	59p.
AVAILABLE FROM	Dissemination Coordinator, NCRCDSLL, 1118 22nd Street, N.W., Washington, DC 20037.
PUB TYPE	Collected Works - Conference Proceedings (021)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC03 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Classroom Environment; *Cultural Differences; Elementary Secondary Education; *English (Second Language); Family Environment; Immersion Programs; Program Descriptions; Second Language Instruction; Second Language Learning; *Teaching Methods
IDENTIFIERS	Goals 2000

ABSTRACT

The proceedings presented consist of summaries and reports of the presentations given during a summer institute on teaching linguistically and culturally diverse learners. Summaries of the following papers are provided: "Education 2000 and Beyond: The Challenge of Our Culturally Diverse Students" (Eugene Garcia); "Second Language Learning in School Settings: Lessons from Immersion" (Fred Genesee); "Elementary Teaching Strategies" (Erminda Garcia, Pola Espinoza, Noni Mendoza Reis); "Effective Programs for Language Minority Students" (Donna Christian, Hugh Mehan, Roland Tharp); and "Learning from Households: Tapping into Funds of Knowledge" (Norma Gonzalez); Interactive Reading Instruction; Instructional Conversations (Jane Echevarria); Teaching Academic Language in Content Areas (Nancy Rhodes and others); The Social Organization of Teaching and Learning (Roland Tharp); Organizing Classrooms for Diversity (Stephanie Dalton and Noni Mendoza Reis); and Language Assessment of Bilingual Children (Barry McLaughlin). (VWL)

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1994 SUMMER INSTITUTE PROCEEDINGS

ED 381 036

TEACHING LINGUISTICALLY AND CULTURALLY DIVERSE LEARNERS: EFFECTIVE PROGRAMS AND PRACTICES

EDITED BY CHRISTOPHER L. MONTONE

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TEACHING LINGUISTICALLY AND CULTURALLY DIVERSE LEARNERS

EFFECTIVE PROGRAMS AND PRACTICES

PROCEEDINGS OF AN INSTITUTE

JUNE 28-30, 1994
HOSTED BY
THE NATIONAL CENTER FOR RESEARCH ON CULTURAL DIVERSITY
AND SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

BY
CHRISTOPHER L. MONTONE

NATIONAL CENTER FOR RESEARCH ON CULTURAL DIVERSITY AND
SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

1995

Teaching Linguistically and Culturally Diverse Learners: Effective Programs and Practices
Editorial/production supervision: Jeanne Rennie
Production: Guadalupe Hernández-Silva
Cover and interior design: Drews & Row, Inc.

This report was prepared with funding from the
Office of Educational Research and Improvement (OERI)
of the U.S. Department of Education, under
Cooperative Agreement No. R117G10022.
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National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning

The National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning is funded by the Office of Educational Research and Improvement of the U.S. Department of Education to conduct research on the education of language minority students in the United States. The Center is operated by the University of California, Santa Cruz, through the University of California's statewide Linguistic Minority Research Project, in collaboration with a number of other institutions nationwide.

The Center is committed to promoting the intellectual development, literacy, and thoughtful citizenship of language minority students and to increasing appreciation of the cultural and linguistic diversity of the American people. Center researchers from a variety of disciplines are conducting studies across the country with participants from a wide range of language minority groups in pre-kindergarten through Grade 12 classrooms. Research projects deal with the relationship between first and second language learning; the relationship between cultural and linguistic factors in the achievement of literacy; teaching strategies to help children from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds gain access to content material; alternate models of assessment for language minority students; various instructional models for language minority children; and the effect of modifications in the social organization of schools on the academic performance of students from diverse backgrounds.

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For more information about individual research projects or to have your name added to the mailing list, please contact:

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Introduction

These proceedings summarize the sessions of the 1994 summer institute sponsored by the National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning. The Center was established in 1991 under the auspices of the Office of Educational Research and Improvement of the U.S. Department of Education. Its mission has been to promote the intellectual development, literacy, and thoughtful citizenship of language minority students, and to foster an appreciation of the multicultural and linguistic diversity of the American people. This mission has been carried out through 17 research projects and through the dissemination of data, information, resources, and materials, both nationally and internationally, to teachers, parents, policymakers, advocacy groups, researchers, and resource centers.

In line with its dissemination goals, the Center held an educational institute, *Teaching Linguistically and Culturally Diverse Learners: Effective Programs and Practices,* on the sprawling, rustic campus of the University of Connecticut, Storrs, June 28-30, 1994. The institute gave those involved a chance to explore, interpret, and challenge the Center's research with the researchers themselves. The sessions covered several professional development themes, including principles of instruction and promising practices for linguistically and culturally diverse students; funds of knowledge—learning from student households and applying that knowledge in the classroom; instructional conversations, including staff development and classroom implementation; and strategies for teaching academic language through content areas.

The institute provided the participants with a variety of presentation formats. Nationally recognized experts in language minority education and research led daily plenary and panel sessions. Researcher-practitioner workshops allowed participants and presenters to discuss issues and ideas in smaller group settings. Concurrent sessions offered choices for elementary and secondary educators. A two-day biliteracy institute focused on innovative language development strategies for elementary classrooms. The campus setting created a collaborative learning environment for participants. Conversations about research and practice did not halt at the lecture hall doors, but continued over lunch, at dinner, and on walks around the campus.

The 115 participants in the institute included elementary and secondary school teachers, administrators, counselors and other support staff, researchers, and graduate students. All participants received a certificate of attendance, and those who attended the entire institute were eligible to receive Continuing Education Units through the University of Connecticut's Center for Professional Development. The sessions were well received by the participants, who benefited from the information offered and the close interaction with researchers in their professional areas of interest.

The proceedings presented here consist of summaries and reports of the presentations given during the institute. Audiotapes, printed text, and personal notes from the presentations were utilized to provide the reader with the key information conveyed at each session. Relevant questions and comments made by the participants during the presentations were also incorporated into these reports so that the reader might benefit from the knowledge and experience brought to the institute by those who attended.

Through the publication of these proceedings, the Center hopes to disseminate more widely the knowledge gained and shared at this institute, and to contribute to the advancement of effective instructional practices for all linguistically and culturally diverse students.

Christopher L. Montone
Center for Applied Linguistics
Washington, DC
January 25, 1995

KEYNOTE ADDRESS

Education 2000 and Beyond: The Challenge of Our Culturally Diverse Students

Eugene García

[Dr. Eugene García, Director of the Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs (OBEMLA) of the U.S. Department of Education, was unable to present the keynote address. However, Mr. Dang Pham, Deputy Director of OBEMLA, attended the institute and read Dr. García's speech.]

Dr. García's speech focused on the reasons for the continuing attention to educational reform in this country over the last decade, the essential elements needed for the nation's new educational policy, and specific changes in federal legislation regarding the education of linguistically and culturally diverse students. A summary of Dr. García's speech is presented here.

Striving to Meet the Changing Needs of Society

Since the publication of *A Nation at Risk* in 1984, sustained attention has been paid to the nation's educational system with an eye toward constructive reform. This attention has been prompted by the realities of society and the workforce. Analysis of U.S. labor trends reveals that more of our jobs than ever before are directly related to international trade; 80% of new jobs will be in the information and service sector; only 8% of jobs in the future will require less than a high school education; and today's youth can be expected to change jobs 7 to 10 times during their careers. Given that students' lives will face continuous social, economic, and technological changes, the role of the schools cannot realistically be that of simply providing job training. Rather, schools must concentrate on the basic academic content and literacy skills of reading, writing, and arithmetic combined with education in *living processes* that enhance human relationships, critical thinking, and civic responsibility. Armed with such skills, students will be able to deal with the increasing diversity in society that results from continuing demographic shifts. In this way, it is hoped that we can change the prevailing attitude, which views diversity as a problem, into one that views diversity as a resource.

To accomplish this task, we must go beyond mere reorganizations and new methodologies and curriculum and imbue our work with inspiration, resolve, commitment, and passion. In addition, we must take the new knowledge base about the education of linguistically and culturally diverse students that we have acquired through research and begin to use that knowledge to effect changes in pedagogy. These new practices must then be field-tested and prove themselves successful. New leadership is also needed—people who are willing to work hard, take risks, learn from failure, deal with shifting paradigms, and collaborate with their colleagues. Moreover, those current leaders who do not have such dispositions should step aside and let others become part of the solution. Finally, we need to engage our affective side and become advocates for our culturally diverse populations every day, hour, and minute.

The challenge of serving diverse student populations continues to be significant for U. S. schools. Resources lag behind demographic realities, and crisis policy corrections have been ineffectively planned and implemented. This has been the case with the main national vehicles for assisting linguistically and culturally diverse students: Title I and Title VII of the *Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA)*. A new education policy needs to encompass a new knowledge base, the wisdom gained from practice, cohesiveness, and demographic and budgetary realities.

A New Foundation of Knowledge About Instruction

Through recent research documenting effective instructional practices for linguistically and culturally diverse students throughout the United States, a new foundation of knowledge has been laid. The insights that numerous case studies of successful schools and programs have given us must now be disseminated and put into practice. Effective education includes teachers who are highly committed to the success of their students, are instructional innovators, engage in professional development,

have the autonomy to alter the instruction and curriculum if necessary, and are advocates for their students. Effective curricula provide frequent opportunities for practicing the four basic language skills and scaffold the learning process for students. Effective schools encourage students to take risks, construct meaning, and seek reinterpretations of knowledge within compatible social contexts.

More Collaborative and Efficient Education Policies

In designing the new educational policy, leaders must collaborate with those policy personnel and interest groups who understand the diverse communities for which they advocate. In this way, policy is informed by wisdom from the field and knowledge is shared among interest groups, researchers, and other related organizations. Any new policy should provide services to students in a comprehensive and integrated manner in order to enhance effectiveness and efficiency. Toward this end, national goals and standards initiatives derived from the *Education 2000* legislation are supported by specific resource allocations through the introduction of the *Educate America Act* and the *ESEA* reauthorization. Within the latter, Title VII is a key component of an integrated effort to address the educational needs of culturally diverse students. In the future, Title I funds will be focused more directly on all students living in poverty, including those who are limited English proficient. Nevertheless, there are now 20 states in which more than 2% of the student population is limited English proficient, and over 100 language groups are currently represented in programs funded by Title VII. Fiscal resources to meet the demands of this population are not likely to be enhanced in any significant way. As a consequence, recipients of these resources will have to use them more efficiently in the future.

Recent Changes in Education Legislation

Specific changes being made in the Title VII legislation are framed by a commitment to the value of bilingualism and the belief that all children can achieve at the high standards to which our educational system aspires. Title VII will continue to serve as the backbone of services to limited English proficient students. Taking into consideration the complexity of educational responses to these students' needs and recognizing the necessity for locally designed and integrated programs, the new legislation stipulates that existing programs under Part A be replaced by new programs consisting of development and enhancement grants, comprehensive school grants, and comprehensive district grants. In Part B, program evaluation requirements will be made more "user friendly" and resources will be targeted more on professional development, including collaboration among local and state education agencies, non-profit organizations, and institutions of higher education. Part C will dedicate resources to professional development and teacher preparation. Discretionary funding for emergency immigrant education will be channeled to schools and districts under a new Part D, which will incorporate the Fiscal Year 1994 *Emergency Immigration Education Act.*

In concluding, I encourage educators and administrators to continue working together to ensure that all linguistically and culturally diverse children and their families benefit from educational reform. Systemic reform that ignores the needs of this population is neither systemic nor reform.

Summary of Plenary Session #1

Second Language Learning in School Settings: Lessons from Immersion

Fred Genesee

Dr. Genesee's plenary session covered the effectiveness of integrating language and content instruction in second language education, the effects of immersion on native language development, the need for systematic planning when designing curricula, and the efficacy of explicit and implicit language instruction.

Among the most interesting innovations in second language education to take place during the last two decades has been the development of second language immersion programs in Canada. These programs consist mainly of majority group English-speaking children immersed in academic instruction in the minority group language, French, with the goal of becoming proficient in that language. When such immersion programs were first introduced, they were viewed as radical educational experiments. Consequently, extensive evaluations were conducted to monitor the programs' effectiveness and the consequences for the participating students. As a result, there is now a good body of research upon which to base some observations about what considerations may be important when designing second language programs in other school settings for other kinds of learners. Analysis of the research findings from immersion programs suggests three main lessons.

Language Integration Over Isolation

The first lesson is that second language instruction that is integrated with instruction in academic or other content matter is a more effective approach to teaching second languages than methods that teach the second language in isolation. During the last 10 years, there has been a general pedagogical shift in this direction for several reasons. First, it is universally recognized that language is acquired most effectively when it is learned for communication in meaningful and significant social situations. Second, the integration of language and content instruction provides a substantive basis for language learning. Since learners are engaged in authentic communication, they are therefore in a position to learn the communicative functions of the new language. In such a setting, student motivation to learn is higher, since few school-aged learners are interested in learning language in the abstract, devoid of relevant context. Third, teaching second and foreign languages through content maintains the crucial connection between language and other aspects of human development, such as the social and cognitive development that school-aged students experience. Finally, teaching language through content remains faithful to the nature of language itself in that it presents opportunities to experience the formal and functional characteristics of language that change from one context to another.

Effects on Native Language Development and Discourse

The second lesson to be derived from research on immersion programs concerns the nature of classroom environments that enhance second language learning. In this regard, second language skills of immersion students differ in noticeable ways from that of native speakers. For instance, immersion students appear to perform at comparable levels in tests of second language reading and listening comprehension, but they do not perform as well as native speakers in tests of production skills. Further, second language learners' grammar in the target language tends to be less complex and less redundant than that of native speakers. It is also influenced by the grammar of their first language. Finally, their second language usage is decidedly less idiomatic than that of native speakers. In view of these findings, it is not sufficient to simply integrate language and content instruction if second language learning is to be maximized. The way in which they are integrated is very important.

Integrated second language programs that provide opportunities for extended discourse, especially discourse associated with activities that individual students are free to select, can be particularly beneficial for second language learning in school settings, especially to improve language production skills. Without these opportunities, even though immersion classrooms tend to provide extensive comprehensible input, nonnative-like production skills may result. One study conducted by Swain (1988) has underscored this phenomenon, finding that only about 14% of the utterances of immersion students in teacher-fronted classrooms are longer than a clause. Another study has shown that extended discourse with native speakers and even with other nonnative speakers is advantageous for second language students (Stevens, 1976). These studies make a strong case for two-way bilingual programs, which are being implemented in the United States, provided that emphasis during the early stages of the program is on the minority language.

Effective Curriculum Design

The third lesson from immersion research is that, without a systematic instructional plan for integrating language objectives with academic objectives, immersion teachers may use strategies that are not optimal for promoting full second language development. For example, some research has shown that in an effort to make the academic content as comprehenisble as possible, teachers may adopt communication strategies that rely on linguistic skills their students already possess. This can result in students not being challenged to learn new language skills. Some of these less-than-effective strategies, which have been identified by Swain (1988), include using a functionally restricted set of language patterns; correcting content more often than linguistic form; inconsistent correction of linguistic form; and providing few opportunities for extended discourse. Second language programs need to teach language both explicitly and implicitly throughout the curriculum. The implicit language curriculum is the most important for language development for two reasons: 1) It provides more exposure to the target language than does the explicit curriculum, and 2) it provides exposure to the target language in authentic and meaningful contexts.

Immersion programs offer the most effective approach to second language teaching in school settings that we have available. This should not be construed, however, as a recommendation that total-immersion-type programs be used for limited English proficient (LEP) students from minority language backgrounds. There are solid theoretical and empirical grounds for favoring programs for LEP students that attend to and promote the development of their home language before and along with development of English as a second language. The findings presented in this paper, nevertheless, serve to shed light on a number of important issues in second language teaching with a long-term view to improving second language learning in school settings in general.

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Stevens, F. (1976). *Second language learning in an activity-centered program.* Unpublished master's thesis, Concordia University, Montreal.

Swain, M. (1988). Manipulating and complementing content teaching to maximize second language learning. *TESL Canada Journal, 6,* 68-83.

Biliteracy Institute

Elementary Teaching Strategies

Erminda García, Pola Espinoza, and Noni Mendoza Reis

Three experienced bilingual teachers presented a five-hour biliteracy institute over the course of two afternoons. The three have taught for many years in elementary bilingual education programs and have offered numerous workshops on the issue of biliteracy.

Day One

Being Culturally Responsive and Responsible

After the presenters welcomed the participants and briefly introduced themselves, Noni Reis opened the institute with a purposeful icebreaker related to the topic of becoming culturally responsive and responsible educators. She explained how she got her name, "Noni," and what it meant, and asked García and Espinoza to share information about their names. Participants were then encouraged to work in groups of three to share information about their names with each other. Reis solicited participants' ideas on classroom issues regarding students' names and identities. The participants discussed the importance of respecting a student's name and its pronunciation and some related difficulties for teachers (e.g., names too long for computers, names difficult to pronounce). Reis reminded the audience that names represent identities and must, therefore, be handled with respect. She further reinforced the point by reading aloud the poem, "My Name," from *The House on Mango Street*, by Sandra Cisneros.

Creating the Conditions for Learning

Erminda García discussed a project she has been involved with for several years, *Optimum Learning Environment* (OLE), which implements a model for literacy learning based upon conditions for learning. García shared the seven conditions described in Cambourne and Turbill (1987). (See Attachment A.) The first condition is *immersion.* Children learn to speak by being immersed in oral language from the day they are born. The language they learn is functional. To encourage literacy, children should be immersed in meaningful print related to the functional language of their environment. Lessons planned around themes can generate vocabulary of interest to students. This vocabulary can then be presented in print on charts and manipulated to foster literacy skills. García showed the audience an example of a chart with adjectives and nouns, derived from a lesson theme, written in Spanish on one side of the chart and in English on the other. The teacher can have the students alphabetize some or all of the words to practice their alphabetizing skills.

Another highly motivational way to surround students with meaningful, functional print is to have the children bring in items from home or the community that they can read. García showed examples of M & M® boxes and K-Mart® advertisements that some of her students had brought to class.

To reinforce writing skills, García advocated using interactive journals, where students are encouraged to write what they can on a topic of their choice. The teacher then writes back to the student in the journal, responding to the content and modeling the appropriate literacy conventions. (See Attachment B.) To further reinforce reading skills, García recommended Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) or Drop Everything and Read (DEAR) programs to contribute to "flooding" the child with print. (See Attachment C.)

Cambourne's second condition for learning is *demonstration.* Teachers and parents should model conventions of reading and writing for children. At school, writing should be modeled in many ways in addition to interactive journals. When teachers write in the classroom, they should make explicit connections between what they are writing and what the students already know. At home, parents can demonstrate how they write things that young children are likely to see, such as shopping lists and phone messages. During silent reading time, teachers should read, too, in order to demonstrate that reading is valued and enjoyed by adults. After reading, the teacher should engage the students in discussion of their books. In all

instances, García emphasized that only authentic, functional reading and writing should take place.

The third condition for learning focuses on *expectations*. García asked participants to think about the expectations they had for their children's literacy achievement, to try to make sense of the cognitive processes at work in the children, and not make hasty judgments about their abilities. She cautioned the audience against lowering expectations for their children's literacy lest they meet the low expectations.

The fourth condition for learning is met by making students *responsible* for their own learning of reading, writing, speaking, and listening skills. For instance, literary conversations—engaging students in discourse about what they read—encourage students to inform the teachers about the content of their reading material and allow teachers to discover what information students process.

The fifth condition for learning is *approximation*. Teachers must create ways for students to approximate the literacy conventions that the teachers model. To facilitate this, teachers and students must meet on a middle ground. This means that a teacher must allow students to explain what they understand about the language and what they are attempting to do with it, so that the teacher knows which level to lead the students to next. When using interactive journals, for example, if a student writes something that is indiscernible, the teacher must ask the student to translate what he or she has written first, before the teacher responds in writing. The teacher then encourages the student to use this written response as a model for whichever aspect of writing the student needs to improve.

The sixth condition for learning concerns *employment:* that is, the opportunities the teacher provides for engaging students in reading and writing during the day and across the curriculum. Teachers should make sure there are a sufficient number of activities to practice these literacy skills while covering content areas such as math, science, and others.

The final condition for learning is *response*. Teachers should craft meaningful responses to student approximations. Since these responses in and of themselves serve as models of the language and of realistic interaction, García strongly recommended that grammar and spelling drills be avoided at this stage.

Employing the Literacy Skills: Interactive Journals

Following García's presentation, Pola Espinoza led the group in a closer examination of interactive journals and techniques for encouraging and responding to student approximations in writing. Espinoza proceeded to demonstrate how interactive journals present a forum for the optimum learning conditions discussed. She showed participants many examples of student writing from journals along with teacher responses. She demonstrated student *coping strategies*, or *scaffolding*, for solving what she called the "literacy puzzle." Some of these strategies and techniques included use of related materials (e.g., drawings), use of environmental print (i.e., familiar letters or words from the surrounding print environment), use of random letter combinations to represent words, and use of artifacts (i.e., known spellings used to represent words students did not know how to write). In each case, teachers must realize that the students are making certain assumptions about language and the convention of writing. Teachers must then ask themselves *why* the students have written what they have in order to discover *what* the student knows about writing and to determine what skill the teacher should present next as a model for student approximation.

During this process, children take responsibility for learning the conventions of writing through their choice of topic, initiation of the writing, and approximation of the teacher's form. Teachers can help the students in this regard by pointing out coping strategies used by some students to others in the class who may find them useful. Teachers should scaffold this learning process by removing old coping strategies as they become obsolete and replacing them with new and more advanced ones. Espinoza concluded by emphasizing that at each step, student achievements should be celebrated as bases for advancement to the next stage in writing.

Day Two

On the second day of the institute, the presenters divided participants into three breakout groups. The groups rotated among the three co-presenters, spending 45 minutes with each. Espinoza spoke on creating thematic units; García discussed literature study; and Reis presented videotaped case studies of effective teachers.

Thematic Units

In her groups, Espinoza began by discussing the difference between a theme and a topic. When many people think of themes, she noted, they think of things such as "whales," "dinosaurs," or "the ocean." But these are not themes; they are topics. A theme should be based upon a certain conceptual understanding, such as "interdependence." The function of a thematic unit is to bring what the teacher wants the child to know together with what the child wants to know. To do this, the teacher should decide the theme and the skills to be developed and let the students choose the topics. This empowers them as learners and enhances their motivation and interest in the lessons.

Once the theme and topics have been decided, the teacher should explore the students' prior knowledge about the first topic to be covered and discover what the students are interested in learning. An effective tool for accomplishing this is the *Know-Want-Learn (KWL)* graphic organizer. Teachers can make a chart with three columns and fill in the students' responses to the following questions: *What do you already know about the topic? What do you want to know about the topic? What did you learn about the topic?* The final question should be answered after completing the lesson(s) on a given topic. Answers to this question should be compared to what the students said they knew about the topic before the lesson. Changes can be made on the chart to model correct content and written form.

Espinoza finished her sessions by demonstrating how she would teach a lesson on matching pictures of animals with the words for their names. In conducting the lesson, Espinoza helped participants fill in words for animal names in mini-books, which she showed them how to make. She also encouraged participants to copy the words from the board or to help each other with the spellings. At the end of the time period, each participant had a mini-book of his or her own.

Turning Children on to Literature

Displaying a variety of children's bilingual literature, García showed the participants in her sessions how she previews and promotes these books to her first-grade students in order to spark interest in reading them. If students are reading something they are interested in, stated García, they can read at one to two grade levels higher than they normally would.

Rather than engaging in routine question-answer reading comprehension sessions, García recommended having students read in groups of 7 or 8 and do a *Think-Pair-Share* exercise. She pointed out that when children collaborate on a text they do four things: 1) talk about literary elements (e.g., characters); 2) give opinions (e.g., about the characters, the plot); 3) personalize (i.e., relate the story to something they know about); and 4) remember other literary genres or authors. Before explaining this to the group, García handed out a poem for participants to read and discuss at their tables. She noted that, for the most part, participants engaged in the same manner of literary discussion as she subsequently described.

In working with literature, García recommends that most literacy activities be based on texts. (See Attachment D.) She arranges her classroom to support this with a journal writing area, where students can make entries everyday. In this area, student groups consisting of a native Spanish speaker, a native English speaker, a balanced speaker (i.e., someone equally fluent in both languages), and a "broker" (i.e., someone from one language group who can help students from the other) can collaborate on their journal entries and share ideas and literacy strategies. She also sets up a writing table and learning centers (e.g., art, listening) where students can work independently or in groups. Listening learning centers are stocked with audiotapes of children's books that sixth-grade students have recorded. This makes it possible for the children to listen to a book and read along, reinforcing both their listening comprehension and reading skills.

Profiles of Effective Teachers

At Reis's station, participants viewed several video vignettes demonstrating effective teaching practices in settings ranging from bilingual elementary classrooms to high school ESL classrooms. While watching the videos, participants were asked to infer the pedagogical values and beliefs of each featured teacher and note their effective practices. After each vignette, participants worked in pairs and shared their observations and impressions with each other. Some of the following values and beliefs were observed in the video:

- Teachers and students should work as equal partners in the classroom.
- Students should be responsible for their learning.
- Students bring valuable talents and experiences to the classroom.
- Teachers should hold high expectations for their students' academic achievement.
- Teachers should promote critical thinking.

Some of the effective practices observed include the following:

- Teachers use thematic instruction, in which themes are explored in depth.
- Students share their ideas and opinions with the class.
- Students are allowed to use their native language in the classroom.
- Teachers model language and use a variety of strategies for making input comprehensible.
- Teachers use cooperative learning.

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Report on Panel Session #1

Effective Programs for Language Minority Students

Donna Christian, Hugh Mehan, and Roland Tharp

Three researchers who have been involved in innovative programs for linguistically and culturally diverse students presented this panel session. Dr. Christian has investigated practices in two-way bilingual programs across the country. Dr. Mehan has studied the effects of untracking low-achieving high school students by putting them in college preparatory classes and providing resource support. Dr. Tharp has worked on applying principles of effective Native American instruction to Zuni classrooms in New Mexico.

During the session, each presenter was allotted time to speak individually about his or her project. Afterward, the audience divided into break-out groups that rotated from presenter to presenter.

Two-Way Bilingual Education

Donna Christian

In two-way bilingual programs—also referred to as *developmental bilingual* or *two-way immersion programs*—a substantial amount of the instructional day is devoted to a language other than English, usually referred to as the *target language*. What makes these programs "two-way" is that, in the same classroom, students who speak the target language as their native language and students who speak English as their native language study together.

The Foundations of Two-Way Programs

Two-way bilingual programs are founded on a number of research-based assumptions. First, a second language is best acquired by students when their first language is firmly established. In two-way programs, language minority students are allowed to develop their native language skills fully while learning English. Second, knowledge and certain abilities acquired in the first language are believed to transfer to the second language. Third, students need to reach a certain level of proficiency in their native language to benefit fully from instruction in the second language.

Two-way bilingual programs are an excellent way for native speakers of another language to acquire the English language and content skills they need to succeed academically. At the same time, native English-speaking students can learn academic subject matter in a second language without hindering their development in English. Another important characteristic of two-way programs is the additive bilingual environment in which they operate. That is, English does not replace the native language, but rather, it is added to the child's language repertoire. Finally, within these programs, both languages and cultures are valued equally, which results in positive self-esteem for both groups of students.

A Variety of Models in a Variety of Settings

In 1987, 30 two-way bilingual programs were identified in the United States. As of 1994, at least 169 schools had implemented two-way programs in 18 states and 92 school districts. Most of these programs have Spanish as the target language and operate at the K-6 level as strands within a school in which program participation is voluntary. Schools that started their programs in kindergarten in the late 1980s and added one grade level per year as the students advanced are now ready to expand into the secondary school level. How schools and districts will serve these students at the secondary level is becoming an increasingly relevant issue for secondary educators.

While there are similarities across many programs, there exists a good deal of variety in program implementation as well. With regard to the separation and distribution of languages, programs generally separate languages during instruction; however, the manner in which languages are distributed varies quite widely across programs (e.g., by time—alternating days or weeks, for example, or by content area). Regarding student population and representation of both language backgrounds in

the program, a 50/50 balance of native target language to native English speakers is desirable. However, given the reality of demographics in a community, that may not always be possible. Because of the way languages are learned and the social forces governing language use, neither language group should comprise less than one third of the total classroom population.

The other major variation in program models concerns the amount of time the target language is used. There are two models used by approximately equal numbers of programs. In the "50/50" model, students at all grade levels receive instruction half of the time in English and the other half in the target language. The "90/10" model resembles the foreign language immersion model in that the students begin the program with 80-100% of the time in the target language. Starting with one class (or about 10% of instructional time), English is gradually introduced, until a 50/50 balance is achieved between the two languages in the upper elementary grades. This gives the language minority students a very firm foundation in their native language and gives the language majority students a total or near total immersion experience.

Research is showing that, in both models, students are achieving well academically (Collier, 1994; Lindholm & Gavlek, 1994). Christian's research project is beginning to look at the differences that result from using one model or the other (50/50 vs. 90/10). She expects differences to appear in the area of language proficiency. Anecdotal evidence suggests that it is preferable to have more language minority students in a demographically unbalanced classroom, and it may be advisable to lean toward the 90/10 model in order to counteract the effects of the dominance of English in the environment outside of the school and to build a stronger base in the target language.

Effective Instructional Strategies and Their Results

Regardless of the program model, there are certain instructional strategies that correspond with principles of second language learning. These strategies include providing opportunities for students to have extended discourse; the integration of language and content (with specific attention paid to language); separation of the two languages; the whole language approach; sheltered instruction; and discovery learning. Cooperative learning is also commonly used because it gives students of both language backgrounds opportunities to communicate and serve as language models for one another.

Based on evaluation reports, students in two-way programs seem to be showing strong academic achievement and good language proficiency development. The findings of evaluations at eight schools in California demonstrated that both English language students and limited English proficient students were progressing adequately in their English language proficiency. (See Attachment E.) The data also support research that suggests it takes five to seven years for nonnative English speakers to acquire the English language skills needed to achieve at academically high levels. While students clearly start out in kindergarten as limited English proficient, data show that by the upper elementary grades, these students are scoring well on English proficiency tests.

Future Directions

The following research questions merit further investigation:

- What differences result from variation in program models?
- How does learning a non-Roman alphabet language differ from learning a Roman-alphabet language?
- How does leaving the program early or entering late affect a student's language development?
- Do students learn enough social language if their principal exposure to the language is in academic settings?

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Untracking in the AVID Program

Hugh Mehan

Mehan introduced a discussion of his research on the social and academic consequences of untracking low-achieving students. His work is based on the presupposition that linguistically and culturally diverse students are not being served well by the current educational system. Among the main reasons for unequal educational opportunity are school sorting practices, such as ability grouping, tracking, and educational testing activities. These sorting practices erect barriers to success for low-achieving students, especially those from low-income backgrounds.

Two attempts to tear down these barriers in recent years have been *untracking* and *detracking*. Untracking is defined as taking students who have not been achieving well in high school, identifying those with high academic potential, and placing them into rigorous academic courses, or college preparatory courses, along with the students who would normally be in those courses. The result is heterogeneous ability grouping. Detracking, by contrast, is an attempt to erase all tracking within a school, grouping all students at one time into one activity. Mehan's research has focused on an untracking activity.

How Does Untracking Work?

In the San Diego Unified School District, a project called *Advancement Via Individual Determination* (AVID) has been identifying and untracking high-potential students in several high schools based on their scores on standardized tests and their low grades in the classroom. These students come primarily from low-income Latino and African-American families. AVID provides the scaffolding needed to assist low-achieving students to transition to and succeed in challenging academic environments. In addition to their college preparatory classes, the AVID students take an elective class where tutors—who tend to be college students, many of whom are graduates of the AVID program —work with them in the classroom. The ratio of students to tutors is generally 7 to 1. Among the participating teachers in the program, 90% are English teachers and the other 10% have science and ESL backgrounds. In the classroom, teachers use many of the effective strategies mentioned by Donna Christian and Fred Genesee earlier in the conference, including an emphasis on writing as a tool for instruction, the inquiry method, and cooperative and collaborative grouping.

Untracking represents a significant break from the traditional philosophy of dealing with underachieving students, which places them in remedial classes where curriculum is often watered down and slower paced. Untracking offers an alternative to remedial instruction based on the idea that for students to succeed academically, they need high academic standards coupled with greater social and academic support, not a watered-down curriculum.

Raising Graduation Rates

The results of the untracking project in San Diego have been measured quantitatively and qualitatively. Quantitatively, from the sample of 248 program graduates from 1990, 1991, and 1992, 48% enrolled in four-year colleges, 40% in two-year colleges, and 12% went directly into the work force. Comparing these figures with the averages in the San Diego Unified School District and in the nation, the students in the AVID program are doing somewhat better than *college-tracked* students in the district and about the same as high school students nationwide. Students who started the AVID program and left within a year went to college at a 34% rate, suggesting that students who stay in the program for three years are more likely to go on to college than those who drop out early.

Breaking the statistics down by ethnicity, 55% of the African-American AVID participants went on to college, which is considerably better than the averages of their peers in the city and nationally. Interestingly, even African-American students who started but did not stay in the program enrolled in college at the same rate as those who completed the AVID program. Among Latinos, 43% of those who completed the program went on to college. This compares with 25% in San Diego and 29% in the United States. Unlike the African-American participants, however, those Latinos who dropped out of the AVID program early tended to drop out of high school altogether.

Providing a System of Social and Academic Support

In his qualitative research, Mehan explored aspects of the AVID program that make untracking successful. These include classroom activities, peer group influences, and parental activities. The program strives to surround students with a set of social scaffolds that lend support to their academic activity. In the AVID classroom, three social activities occur that lend support to these students: 1) explicit socialization into the implicit culture of the school; 2) teacher advocacy; and 3) institutional sponsorship. All of these provide the social scaffolding beneficial for moving from low academic achievement to high academic standards.

With regard to explicit socialization into the culture of the school, the special elective course attempts to equip students with the tools necessary not only to acquire content knowledge but to present that knowledge in ways that are in accord with the school culture. Much of what this culture requires is known implicity by students from upper-income families, but not by lower-income or culturally diverse students. Aspects of this implicit school culture may include strategies for writing essays, taking tests, and winning scholarships. These strategies for academic success are being explicitly taught to AVID students.

Teacher advocacy is another feature that leads to AVID's success. AVID teachers act as advocates for the students, taking student concerns to the proper administrative levels on their behalf. As an example, teachers intercede for students if they have a complaint about particular teachers being insensitive to minority students.

AVID teachers also engage in institutional sponsorship activities, such as promoting their students before college and university admissions officers. The teachers have taken on many guidance counselor roles because the ratio of counselors to high school students in San Diego is 1 to 500. AVID teachers visit colleges, gather application forms and information about scholarships, and make sure students visit local and out-of-town colleges as well. This kind of personal connection between universities, teachers, and minority students helps provide avenues to institutions of higher learning that have been seldom traversed in the past.

Instructional Conversations in Zuni Classrooms

Roland Tharp

Tharp's research project, the only one sponsored by the National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning that studies Native Americans, has worked with generic principles for effective Native American education in a specific setting. The work has taken place in Zuni, New Mexico, but the findings are representative of broader concerns of Native Americans.

Guiding Principles in Native American Education

Based on an extensive literature review, four major activities for promoting effective education in Native American settings have been identified.

Small Student-Directed Activities. This type of activity is more important to Native Americans than to other cultural groups, because a great deal of child autonomy is present in Native American culture.

Instructional Conversations. Native Americans seem to respond well to structured instructional conversations: that is, purposeful extended discourse with a teacher and other students. These conversations are typically initiated by the students as the need arises.

Performance Demonstration. In Native American settings, child socialization relies heavily on observational learning. This type of learning creates an approach to problem solving and a patterning of perception that fits extremely well with the inclusion of performance activities or demonstrations as part of the pedagogy.

Joint Productive Activity. This type of activity requires students to work together to complete a shared task. To be effective, this activity should occur not only among students, but between students and teacher as well.

Adapting General Principles to Local Settings

These general principles can be adhered to in very different ways to suit specific local conditions. For example, in one Zuni classroom, the social organization of

the students was constantly emerging, shifting, and changing. On one day in this classroom, the students all had a common task—to prepare a report—but were permitted to work on any aspect of that project that they wanted (e.g., research, word processing). During this time, the teacher circulated in the classroom, offering instructional conversation to those students who needed assistance. Those conversations were initiated and terminated by the students themselves.

Another Zuni classroom, by contrast, worked like a Swiss clock. This classroom consisted of a system of "centers," to which students would rotate at 20 minute intervals. At these centers, highly structured instructional conversations took place in small groups. This model allowed students to engage in small group discussion as well as decide at which centers they would work next. In this classroom, the social organization was more rigidly planned than in the other. While both classrooms utilized the same general principles, they did so via procedures that were appropriate to the local context. A question emerges: *How much "give and take" exists between applying the general principles and adapting to local conditions?*

Designing a Program Through the "Consensual Perspective Approach"

The "consensual perspective approach" to developing a culturally appropriate educational program provides for a social organization that allows representation of the important constituencies in the learning environment. These constituencies include an expert in the knowledge base (i.e., a researcher), representatives of the program designer, the program operators (i.e., teachers), the local community, and local learners. Once these representatives are assembled, their perspectives on how to implement each of the guiding principles of education are solicited. Since those perspectives will not be the same, a consensus must be reached. To ensure the effectiveness of the program, consensus is necessary at three levels: program design, program operation, and program evaluation.

Tharp concluded his session by having four of his colleagues answer questions from the audience. Stephanie Dalton, a principal investigator on the Zuni Indian project, represented the program designer; Marilyn Feathers, principal of the Zuni middle school serving as the research site, represented the program evaluator; Georgia Epaloose, a Pawnee Indian and the lead teacher in the Zuni middle school, represented the program operators and the community; and Rebecca Pleasure, a new teacher at the middle school, also represented the program operators. These four colleagues provided more detailed information about the organization and operation of the Zuni program.

Summary of Plenary Session #2

Learning from Households: Tapping into Funds of Knowledge

Norma González

In this plenary session, Dr. González presented a perspective from within linguistically and culturally diverse housholds. Through her research project, teachers have entered student homes with anthropological lenses and have gained insight and experience that they have translated into informed and effective instruction of their diverse students.

González described her research project, which delves into the influence of home and community on the learning environment. This project has revealed three ways in which households can be seen as possessing *funds of knowledge*, which are defined as those historically accumulated and culturally developed bodies of knowledge and skills essential for household or individual functioning and well-being. By means of an ethnographic study, the project has looked at the origin, use, and distribution of funds of knowledge among households in Latin-American, African-American, and Native-American communities. By looking at the socioeconomic history and the functioning of these households in the context of their communities, the project has found that this knowledge encompasses a broad and diverse range of information on subjects such as ranching, farming, animal husbandry, construction, cross-border trade, finance, and business.

A Collaborative Effort Between Researchers and Teachers

In this project, researchers in anthropology work with teachers to understand better the culture of language minority students. In the past, this work was typically undertaken by anthropologists who conducted research in the homes and subsequently provided inservice training to teachers. However, this left the teachers somewhat detached from the process. In this case, when teachers themselves entered student homes, interesting things began to happen. The teachers felt more directly involved in the investigation process; they were granted entry to the home more readily than researchers; and they found it easier than the anthropologists to build rapport with the families. After each visit, researchers and teachers would meet to discuss the visits and the knowledge gained from them.

Before teachers entered student households, the parents were notified of the research project and asked to participate. Each teacher selected three student homes to visit. Prior to the visits, the teachers received 10 hours of training from university researchers on how to conduct qualitative ethnographic research.

Shifts in Teacher Perceptions of Culture

Entering the community in this manner led to two transformative shifts among teachers in how they conceptualized households. The first concerned how they perceived culture. For these teachers, the concept of culture moved from a normative perception focused on behaviors to a process-centered approach that provides more contextualized understanding based on the lived experiences of students and their households. The second transformative shift was a move away from the cultural deficiency theory—that working-class households lack appropriate social and cognitive resources—and the resulting belief that this deficiency provides an obstacle to higher levels of achievement in school.

From the Home to the Lab to the Classroom

By examining more closely how minority households interacted, teachers and researchers have discovered that households cooperate and exchange services within a framework of reciprocity. These exchanges encompass everything from home and automobile repair to music and food. This reciprocity represents an attempt to establish an enduring social relationship. Each exchange with kinsmen, friends, and neighbors creates mutual trust, or *confianza*. Further, each exchange that the students are exposed to provides a context in which learning can occur.

The second component of the project involves after-school study groups, or *labs*. This is a forum where teachers share and reflect on household findings and plan and develop innovations for instruction. In the labs, household experiences are viewed through ethnographic lenses. Discussion is focused on the constitutive and dispersive properties of the joint construction of knowledge between researchers and teachers as both groups share insights and information. During these meetings, university researchers have learned how teachers can evaluate and weave elements of their own and their students' experiences into educational practice. Teacher-researchers have discovered how qualitative research methods can validate the life experiences of their students as well as their own pedagogical expertise.

The third component of the research project is *practice*. This involves incorporation of the household knowledge into tangible curricular activities within the classroom. The objective is not to replicate this household knowledge in the classroom, but to draw from something familiar to the students and build upon it in a content area.

A videotape of the various features of the project shows parents and students engaged in home-based activities such as construction and garage sales, which provide opportunities for knowledge and skill acquisition for the students. Teachers and researchers are also shown sharing the findings of their home visits in after-school labs. In one classroom scene, a Yaqui aide (and relative of some of the students) is shown sharing her knowledge of plants and soil. In another, a Latino parent with knowledge of candy-making leads a class in a module on candy-making, covering the topics of health, food production and preparation, and consumerism. Later in the video, a teacher speaks passionately of the transformative process that resulted from taking time to discover the rich funds of knowledge present within her students' households and communities.

Involving Parents in the School

Parent reactions to the household visits have been overwhelmingly positive, primarily because the nature of the home visits has changed from informing parents of children's problems to gathering information from and about the family. As a result, participating parents have often invited the teachers to join in family activities and celebrations. A benefit of this rapport with the teachers has been the renewed interest of some parents in their children's school. The project has opened doors for parents to volunteer their time and talents in the classroom. In one case, the discovery of an African-American parent's musical talents led to the parent performing in student classrooms, directing a school musical, and eventually being elected PTA president. In one video segment, this parent discusses his willingness to welcome teachers into the home in a context of mutual respect, honesty, and a desire to share experiences.

The most powerful resource for changing instruction is found in funds of knowledge in the community. These resources can be utilized to create social methods of teaching, and teachers equipped with this methodology and expertise can build bi-directional pathways between home and school. By this means, teachers can create qualitatively new relationships with families based on friendship, trust, and respect for one another's knowledge.

Summary of Researcher-Practitioner Session #1

Interactive Reading Instruction: Instructional Conversations

Jana Echevarría

Dr. Echevarría's researcher-practitioner session introduced the audience to the pedagogical approach of instructional conversation (IC), laid out the theoretical underpinnings for ICs, and offered videotaped examples of interactive reading instruction using the IC approach.

Instructional conversation (IC) is an interactive approach to pedagogy that encourages the teacher to draw from students' prior knowledge and experience in order to guide extended conversations between the teacher and students along new paths of education. ICs draw on the Vygotskian theory of language as the primary vehicle for intellectual development and the need to work within a child's *zone of proximal development*—the range in cognitive ability between what the student already knows how to do independently and what he or she can learn to do with assistance. This approach to teaching, therefore, is believed to be beneficial especially for children from impoverished or language minority homes because it allows them to use language more abundantly and develop literacy skills. ICs contrast sharply with the traditional recitation, or transmission, model of instruction, which is characterized by an initiation-response-evaluation (IRE) pattern, teacher domination of speech, and extremely brief student utterances.

Elements of Instruction and Conversation

ICs have several key instructional and conversational components that distinguish them from both traditional instruction and everyday conversation. (See Attachment F.) Teachers need to be aware of these elements when planning and implementing their IC lessons.

One of the principal elements of ICs related to *instruction* is thematic focus. In ICs used for reading instruction, the teacher begins by thoroughly familiarizing himself or herself with a reading passage and then selecting a theme to relate subsequent instructional tasks in the lesson. During an IC, the teacher elicits the students' prior knowledge about the subject matter and looks for ways to weave that knowledge into the learning event so as to increase student interest in the text. Occasional direct teaching of a skill or concept is also acceptable within an IC when it is needed.

Elements of ICs that focus on *conversation* encourage the teacher to promote more complex language and expression by the students. IC teachers ask questions such as, "What do you mean by that?" and restate student responses by starting with, "In other words. . . ." While IC teachers do have an initial plan and are responsible for maintaining the focus and coherence of the discussion, little of the discussion should be centered upon "known-answer" questions posed by the teacher. Instead, the teacher should provide opportunities for students to bring their own thoughts, beliefs, and feelings to the discussion and should be responsive to student input in a meaningful way. In addition, natural student interactions should, to the extent possible, determine who speaks when and to whom. The teacher's role is to create a non-threatening environment in which students feel safe enough to engage in the kind of challenging repartee that will allow them to negotiate and construct meaning from the text jointly.

More Authentic and Successful than Direct Teaching

ICs differ from direct teaching with regard to teacher roles, discourse, participant selection, instructional process, and educational objectives. (See Attachment G.) These differences are demonstrated vividly in videotaped episodes of a basal reading lesson and an IC reading lesson. The students in the IC segment display more enthusiasm and their activity is more animated than student activity in the basal segment. In addition, the IC students hold more authentic exchanges of discourse than the students in the traditional reading class.

The results of a case study in which students receiving instruction under an IC approach were compared to students using basal readers showed that IC students had a deeper understanding of a reading's theme than the basal students, had more self-initiated, non-scripted utterances, and had a higher total number of utterances.

Lessons Learned

At this point in Echevarría's presentation, the audience broke out into discussion groups to view more video segments of instructional conversations. Afterward, each group was asked to discuss the following: *How were the aspects of teacher planning and preparation manifested in students' behavior? How did the role of the teacher cause ICs to differ from any good discussion? What might be the cognitive and linguistic benefits of ICs for second language learners?* After about 15 minutes, the audience reassembled and shared their discussions with Echevarría, making the following observations about the IC model:

- Seven is the maximum number of students you should have in a group for a good IC.
- It takes some time for students to get accustomed to turn-taking and extended utterances in a student-centered lesson.
- More intellectual planning is required of teachers, since they must try to anticipate which direction student reactions might take.
- Wait time and slower pace allow students time to engage in critical thinking and to formulate responses.
- Student responses are respected and validated.
- The goal is to achieve student-student connected discourse.
- Many teachers think they are doing instructional conversation already, but when tape-recorded they realize that they tend to dominate the discussion time and/or ask many known-answer and/or low-level thinking questions.

Summary of Panel Session #2

Teaching Academic Language in Content Areas

Nancy Rhodes and Jeff Solomon, Deborah Short, and Beth Warren and Ann Rosebery

In this panel session, researchers involved in content area instruction focus on the language skills and functions that linguistically and culturally diverse students need to possess in order to succeed academically. Ms. Rhodes and Mr. Solomon have surveyed teachers to discover their expectations for student academic language use in general. In the area of social studies, Ms. Short has identified the language features to inform development of instructional materials addressing the needs of English language learners. Drs. Warren and Rosebery are working with science teachers to clarify and model patterns of scientific process and inquiry for Haitian students.

During the session, each presenter was allotted time to speak individually about his or her project. Afterward, the audience divided into break-out groups that rotated from presenter to presenter.

Assessing the Academic Language of ESL Students

Nancy Rhodes and Jeff Solomon

The development of academic language skills—that is, the language skills needed to participate successfully in academic tasks—is a generally agreed upon requirement for academic progress for second language learners. However, the questions of how to assess academic language for diagnostic and placement purposes, and the relationship between academic skills and language proficiency remain unresolved. The purpose of the project's research is to develop strategies for informal assessment of academic language ability.

This project's work seeks to answer the following questions: *What are some major characteristics of the academic language of ESL students? What are appropriate tasks and strategies for determining the academic language of ESL students? In what ways can these tasks and strategies be tested in a classroom setting in culturally appropriate ways?*

The project involves three principal phases: 1) classroom observation, transcript analysis, and literature review; 2) surveying teachers' perceptions of academic language and analysis of their responses; and 3) development of informal assessment tools for teachers to use to evaluate students' academic language proficiency. Since its inception in 1993, the project has focused on the first two phases identifying the features and qualities of academic language.

What Is Academic Language?

Cummins (1981) suggests that academic language, when compared to social language, is more context-reduced and cognitively demanding in nature. This means that students do not have a wealth of contextual and paralinguistic cues at their disposal to aid them in comprehending language associated with academic tasks. Other scholars, such as Pierce and O'Malley (1992), argue that academic language is comprised of particular language functions. These functions include seeking information, informing, and analyzing, among others. Snow, Met, and Genesee (1989) talk about "content obligatory" language, which is needed to develop, master, and communicate specific content material. This contrasts with "content compatible" language, which is language that is not particular to a content area, but is needed nonetheless to perform academic tasks.

Many teachers who have responded to the project survey, on the other hand, have identified more specific and classroom-based aspects of language as "academic." These aspects include, among others, vocabulary, grammar, use of synonyms, proofreading/editing, mechanics, use of the passive voice, and "sophisticated" forms of language. One teacher surveyed mentioned the organization of ideas and another discussed the importance of metacognition.

Identifying Patterns of Usage in the Classroom

Audiotapes and written transcripts gathered from the project's observations of two classrooms in an

elementary bilingual school (English/Spanish) in Washington, DC, have revealed that academic language is much broader than the discrete language functions mentioned earlier. As a result of tape-recording, transcribing, and carefully analyzing transcripts, it was discovered that academic language also includes styles of language usage sanctioned and encouraged by teachers. For example, one pattern observed involved teachers asking students to retell written stories in precise chronological order. In an audiotaped segment of one case of this chronological story retelling, a teacher asked a student in her pull-out ESL class to retell a story "from the beginning." The student began to summarize the beginning *portion* of the story, rather than recounting the events from the literal beginning of the story. Further attempts to retell the story resulted in the teacher interrupting and prompting the student to begin at an earlier point in the story. In the remainder of this particular interaction, the teacher provided the student with several more cues that led to his retelling the story from what the teacher considered to be the beginning.

Other patterns of academic language observed include such tasks as topic expansion/connections to other domains and metalanguage, or discourse about language itself. These constitute a preliminary list of aspects of academic language that teachers seem to require of their students, as revealed repeatedly in classroom transcripts.

Once the analysis of the transcripts is complete and other patterns of academic language are identified, the project will work with a group of teachers from the Washington, DC area to develop informal assessment strategies for academic language. The final phase of the project aims to establish assessment guidelines for teachers that are practical and relatively easy to implement.

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Integrating Language and Culture in Social Studies

Deborah J. Short

Short's research project on integrating language and culture in social studies has been operating at the middle school level with limited English proficient students in either sheltered or heterogeneous classrooms. The project has looked at the academic, linguistic, and cultural competencies of social studies to determine which aspects of these pose difficulties for English language learners (ELLs) in learning social studies and communicating knowledge about social studies concepts. Project researchers have analyzed the discourse from teacher talk in the classroom, classroom interactions, and lesson assignments in order to identify academic language features of social studies and instructional strategies that promote student success.

Creating Thematic Social Studies Units

The first phase of this research project involved the development of a thematic American history unit called *Protest and the American Revolution.* This unit was written with the help of social studies and ESL teachers and includes more multicultural information than is found in traditional curricula. It incorporates both social studies objectives and English language objectives and directs teachers to use students as informants about their native countries and cultures to build new knowledge on the foundation of what they already know. The theme of "protest" was chosen because many of the ELLs in the United States come from countries that have experienced protest and war and could therefore relate to the theme from their own knowledge. Teachers from around

the United States were trained in approaches to integrating language and content instruction, then field-tested the unit. With feedback from these teachers, the lessons were revised and made available to the public.

The second phase of the project has been the creation of a world studies unit. This has proved more challenging, since there is no unified subject matter for world studies at the middle school level, as there is for American history. Nevertheless, four mini-units were written into the curriculum, *Conflict in World Cultures.* This collection of units is based on the theme of "conflict and conflict resolution." The mini-units cover the Spanish conquistadors' contact with the Inca Empire, the Protestant Reformation, the opening of American-Japanese trade relations, and the resistance by Ethiopia to European colonialism in Africa. These mini-units cut across continents and time periods from the 16th century forward. In each one, students examine the type of conflict involved and the way in which the conflict was resolved. They are then challenged to consider other ways in which the conflicts could have been resolved.

Academic Language and the Challenges to English Language Learners

Although many ESL teachers enjoy teaching social studies, it can be a very challenging subject for ELLs. Social studies requires very high literacy skills, because much of the instruction comes through teacher lecture and textbook reading. Success in social studies also depends on accumulation of background knowledge. In general, each grade's curriculum builds on the previous year's. English language learners entering the school system for the first time rarely have the benefit of the previous year's content knowledge. Social studies information also tends to be abstract and decontextualized. Unlike science classrooms, social studies classrooms do not usually make use of mediating tools common in ESL teaching, such as manipulatives and hands-on experiments.

In examining the academic language of social studies, the project has identified tools, concepts, language functions, and skills that students are expected to understand and use to succeed in social studies classrooms. (See Attachment H.) Some language features are common to all classrooms (e.g., look on page # . . .), while other features are more specific to social studies (e.g., geographic locations, famous people and events). In addition, social studies teachers engage in numerous language functions (e.g., giving directions, previewing, reviewing), and students are expected to complete a variety of language-related tasks (e.g., do research, write an essay, present an oral report).

Analysis of social studies textbooks has revealed other challenges for ELLs. The books examined by the project were found to contain insufficient glossaries, precipitating the need for students to consult dictionaries, teachers, and peers for definitions of new vocabulary. Additionally, the structure of the texts was found to vary. While there are about six different structures found in textbooks, the most prevalent in social studies texts is the chronological (or sequential). Cause-effect and problem-solution structures are also found and occasionally appear as sub-structures within paragraphs. These structures rely on signal words and cohesive markers that organize and connect the main ideas of the readings. Such markers are fairly consistent, yet rarely taught. ELLs could benefit from explicit teaching of these structures and markers. Finally, the mainstream textbooks tend to be ethnocentric, presenting information about and through the perspective of Anglo males. When multicultural information or diverse perspectives are included, they are often added as sidebars or in chapters that are placed at the end of units.

Effective Instructional Strategies

In the face of all of these challenges, teachers can employ strategies that have proven effective with ELLs in social studies. (See Attachment I.) By making connections to students' background knowledge and real-life experiences, as well as by using the students as cultural resources in the classroom, teachers can make the content more meaningful, relevant, and interesting. By providing multiple opportunities to communicate about social studies and employing hands-on activities, teachers can help students familiarize themselves with the language and tasks related to social studies. Using graphic organizers has been very successful in depicting how information is organized. Teacher modeling helps students engage in the essential procedures associated

with the many tasks required for success in the classroom. Also, cooperative learning techniques provide opportunities for students to learn from and with each other in a non-threatening environment.

Referring to Fred Genesee's paper, Short reinforced the desirability of integrating language and content instruction. Research has shown that language is learned best when it is the medium rather than the goal of instruction. With the benefit of proper instructional strategies and approaches in the classroom, ELLs can become successful learners of English and social studies.

Cheche Konnen - Scientific Sense-Making

Beth Warren and Ann Rosebery

The goal of the *Cheche Konnen* research project is to establish communities of scientific practice that are student centered and process oriented. Students, with the guidance and advice of teachers, are to develop their own questions for scientific investigation, formulate hypotheses, argue evidence, negotiate claims, and build and criticize theories.

Teacher-Researcher Workshops

Project researchers hold weekly seminars with teachers in the Boston area to work on a variety of scientific problems and to discuss ways of promoting scientific understanding among students who come from a variety of cultural backgrounds and who might not have been exposed to the principles of Western science. Upon returning to their science classrooms, the teachers stress to their students that the scientific process, contrary to popular belief, is often confusing, unclear, and difficult. They then work to make the process more comprehensible to their students.

Observing the Results in the Classroom

Another dimension of this project is the analysis of videotapes of various teachers' science lessons to determine the extent of student-centered learning. Before showing a videotape of Creole-speaking Haitian students negotiating scientific "facts," the presenters asked the audience members to consider the following questions for later group discussion: *Are teaching and learning taking place? Is anything scientific going on? Does the conversation in the video raise any dilemmas, challenges, or questions for your classroom practice, or, more generally, for science teaching and learning?* The audience was asked to consider that argument and debate can be very powerful means for developing students' understanding of why one does experiments and what constitutes evidence in science.

In the video, a student, Scott, claimed that some snails he brought home from school had already multiplied to thirty. The other students in the class did not believe that such a rapid reproduction rate was scientifically possible and proceeded to challenge Scott's assertion, forcing him to defend and explain his claims. In the end, Scott's position remained in opposition to that of his classmates regarding the reproduction rate of snails. Throughout the video, the students' interactions were relatively loosely structured, and there was minimal interruption by the teacher.

In the discussion groups that followed, participants attempted to respond to the questions posed before the videotape was shown. Some thought that true learning could not have occurred for the students in the video because the teacher did not impart information nor structure the students' interactions with specific questions and comments. Others felt that the students had learned something about scientific thought through the process of argumentation and negotiation.

Summary of Plenary Session #3

The Social Organization of Teaching and Learning

Roland Tharp

Dr. Roland Tharp, whose project examines culturally appropriate methods of instruction for Native Americans, asked the audience to consider his thesis: that most teaching and learning among middle and high school students has nothing to do with the intentions of the teachers, but rather takes place outside of school, in the context of social relationships that are created with peers in the schoolyard, in the home, and in communities.

There are three relevant propositions of sociocultural theory: 1) knowledge is constructed, not transmitted; 2) knowledge is constructed through activity; and 3) knowledge is socially constructed through conversation. As a result, awareness of where and how learning takes place depends upon those individuals with whom one engages in conversation and activity.

It is principally with peers that students interact. This interaction is not random, however, but extremely organized. This can be seen in a detailed graphic organizer, prepared by a student at a high school in Santa Cruz, of the "crowds" or "cliques" at the school. This student was able to outline not only the different social groups in the school, but also the lines of communication among them, as well as their composition by ethnicity, socioeconomic status, and gender. Such social organizations are neither random nor readily forgotten. Teachers need to be aware of and understand the social organization of their schools if they want to organize their classrooms for effective learning. New teachers should learn the social organization of their school as quickly as possible in order to determine how the classroom works and how it can work better.

The Dynamics of Social Sorting

People tend to sort themselves into social groupings. (See Attachment J.) Groups, such as the crowds formed at school (called *affinity groups* by social scientists), are formed by people who feel an affinity toward one another. According to research in social science, the one determinant that accounts for approximately 80% of the variables influencing the formation of affinity groups is *propinquity*. That is, people tend to grow close to people who are physically near them. Propinquity is not a mechanism, however, but an opportunity. People do not become friends with everyone who is physically near them. Rather, those who are near form a "pool of eligibles" from which one chooses one's friends, mentors, lovers, and so forth. Affinity is then created through joint activity. Out of joint activity, then, comes a certain *intersubjectivity*, that is, seeing the world in the same way. This is how students construct meaning. Through joint activity, they craft a common understanding of the world together. Once individuals begin to think alike, a feeling of affinity naturally follows. Students choose their friends from among those who are near to them and think like them. Affinity, then, is not necessarily constrained by gender, ethnic, racial, and linguistic boundaries, because the most important requirement for affinity is thinking in a like manner. Finally, because friends enjoy each other's presence, they look for opportunities to be together; thus, intersubjectivity leads back to propinquity and the cycle returns to the starting point.

Exploring the Consequences: Effective Intervention

At this point, the audience divided into three groups with one facilitator assigned to each for the purpose of discussing the information just presented. After about 15-20 minutes, the participants reunited and Tharp solicited summaries of the discussions from each facilitator. In the groups, participants had noted that Tharp's model of social organization proved useful for explaining how gangs organize and function; how social group inclusion varies by culture and cultural values; and the role that school tracking programs play in group formation. While much can be done in individual classrooms, Tharp added, for many of these issues, intervention must also take place on the school or district level.

Discussion of how teachers can create or alter intersubjectivity among the students and between teachers and students took place next. Tharp advised teachers not to intervene in the social organization cycle at the level of intersubjectivity. Rather, they should focus on creating propinquity and activities that could lead to the kind of intersubjectivity they desire for their students. Teachers ideally want their students to approximate their own way of thinking. However, this is not likely to happen, because many teachers do not have affinity with their students. The reason they lack affinity is that teachers and students do not engage in joint activities. The task for teachers, then, becomes one of finding joint activities that will lead to intersubjectivity between them and their students.

Similarly, altering the propinquity and activities in the classroom can allow a teacher to promote affinities among students of different races, ethnicities, or genders. One of the participants observed that in multicultural classes, teachers must walk a fine line between creating activities that allow diverse students to recognize and appreciate the commonalties that exist among themselves and creating activities that allow students to maintain a healthy esteem for those aspects of their native language and culture that distinguish them from others. Tharp agreed, reminding the audience not to intervene at the level of intersubjectivity, rather to concentrate on creating constructive activities that would lead to shared perception and thought.

Summary of Researcher-Practitioner Session #2

Organizing Classrooms for Diversity

Stephanie Dalton and Noni Mendoza Reis

Stephanie Dalton led participants through the pedagogical issues and processes of organizing the classroom for learning activities. Based on the guiding principles of the sociocultural theory of learning described earlier by Roland Tharp, Dalton discussed the need for language development, responsive dialogue, joint productive activity, and contextualization in culturally and linguistically diverse classrooms.

Following Roland Tharp's presentation, Stephanie Dalton explained that classrooms could be organized in various ways to promote different objectives:

- to diversify students' groupings.
- to maximize students' opportunities to interact with teacher and peers.
- to build student independence.
- to maximize student and teacher co-participation for teaching and learning.

Conditioning Students to Activity Settings

Before engaging in new content for the year, teachers should condition their students to the social organizations, or activity settings (AS), that will be used in the classroom. (See Attachment K.) Students need to be comfortable with the structure in which learning will occur so that they may more easily grasp the content when it is presented. Each time students begin work in a new setting, teachers should start with a task that students can complete successfully, until the students become accustomed to the new AS. Teachers should not move on to a new AS until they feel reasonably certain that the students are able to work on their own in that setting. To ascertain how comfortable students are working together in these groups, in the initial stages of this activity setting conditioning, teachers can hold debriefing sessions with the students. Following the small group work, teachers should ask the students how well they worked together, highlighting their successes and discussing how to work better in a community.

Dalton then asked participants to sketch the arrangement of their classrooms or those in which they have been working, keeping in mind the principles of social organization discussed previously. Dalton reviewed the guiding principles for organizing classrooms that facilitate joint productive activity, responsive dialogue, and instructional conversation. (See Attachment L.)

Participants broke into groups to discuss these organization principles. Each group was asked to agree upon one question to ask about the principles and their implementation. The groups came up with the following questions: How can we start and keep the students on task while working in groups? How can we redesign the curriculum for work in activity settings? What staff development training is needed to implement these organization principles in our classrooms? How do we deal with practical/administrative constraints (e.g., teachers moving from classroom to classroom during the day)? How can we create activities that truly promote student interdependence?

Teachers can start with a whole class setting at the beginning of the year and slowly progress—over the course of the first 4-8 weeks—through a series of stages in classroom organization patterns that allow the students to work cooperatively and independently in smaller groups. It is important to provide groups with clear instructions and to ensure common expectations about the work to be done. Activities chosen should be ones that promote student success and build student independence. Teachers should feel free to experiment with group types and membership combinations in order to achieve the social goals they have for the class. Once the students are comfortable with the AS and their responsibilities, the AS can be used fully for content instruction throughout the rest of the year.

Noni Mendoza Reis expanded on these issues and provided a personal account of how learning centers and work stations can be used in elementary classrooms. She explained how she gave classroom maps to her first-grade

students showing them where to go and when to rotate from station to station. It took approximately 6 to 8 weeks to familiarize students with the classroom organization, because each center's procedures had to be explained and practiced individually. The centers and learning stations in the classroom included a writer's workshop, listening post (equipped with cassette recorders and tapes), ABC center, bilingual center (where students could work on biliteracy development), interactive journals, and a math center. Students rotated in groups of eight to the non-center stations (e.g., interactive journals, writer's workshop), but worked in pairs at the centers. Students are paired heterogenously by native language, so that the students can facilitate each other's second language development.

Skillful classroom organization can bring students together in ways they may not experience elsewhere. By providing opportunities for the propinquity and joint activity that Tharp spoke of earlier, teachers can facilitate construction of knowledge (intersubjectivity) and affinity ties among culturally diverse students.

Summary of Closing Plenary Session

Language Assessment of Bilingual Children

Barry McLaughlin

The final session of the institute was led by Dr. Barry McLaughlin, Director of the National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning. He framed discussion of his topic around a project he was involved in for the state of California dealing with language assessment issues in early childhood programs. Dr. McLaughlin spoke about the processes of first and second language acquisition, the nature and functions of assessment, and issues related to authentic assessment.

McLaughlin began by noting that valid assessment of limited English proficient (LEP) children requires teachers and administrators to have a formidable knowledge base about the process of second language acquisition. He then discussed some common myths and misconceptions about second language learning.

Myths and Misconceptions

There is a popular notion that children learn second languages easily and quickly. In reality, although they acquire more native-like accents, children have just as much difficulty learning languages as adults. They only appear to do better because most of their language use involves concrete topics, whereas adults need to talk more abstractly. Research studies have shown that older learners actually do better on the whole (see, e.g., McLaughlin, 1993).

Second, the idea that the earlier the child begins to learn a second language the better has not been borne out in the research. Studies in Europe are suggesting that it is better to have a strong foundation in the native language before beginning a second language (see, e.g., McLaughlin, 1993). Fourth or fifth grade may be the optimal time to begin learning a second language.

A third myth is that the more time a child spends in a second language context, the quicker he or she will learn the language. However, a study funded by the U.S. Department of Education revealed that students in late-exit bilingual programs—where students continue to learn in their native language for several years—came out with the same English skills as children who had had more exposure to English. Furthermore, observations of two-way bilingual programs show that children exposed to English for only a portion of their instruction still develop age-appropriate English-language skills. This may be due in part to the students being surrounded by English outside of the school environment. Strengthening native language skills before being immersed in a second language may be as effective as immersion in achieving second language acquisition.

Another common misconception about second language acquisition is that a child has acquired a language once he or she can converse socially speak it. In many cases, LEP children are mainstreamed as soon as they can converse socially in the second language, but they may not have the requisite semantic network—understanding how words are connected semantically—or reading and writing skills necessary to function successfully in a mainstream academic classroom.

A Variety of Bilingual Types

To debunk another misconception, that all children learn a second language in the same way, McLaughlin presented a chart showing four types of bilingualism that can arise from variation in prior and subsequent exposure to the second language (L2). (See Attachment M.) Students with high prior exposure to L2 (in the home) and high subsequent exposure (in school) tend to be *simultaneous bilinguals.* That is, they are equally strong in both languages. Those with high prior exposure but low subsequent exposure tend to be *passive* (or *receptive) bilinguals.* These students receive a lot of English input from the environment (e.g., television) and appear to pick up English very quickly, but their language abilities are limited mainly to speaking and listening. Children who come to school with low previous exposure to English

and then receive a high amount of exposure tend to become *rapid successive bilinguals*, while those with low prior exposure and low subsequent exposure tend to be *slow successive bilinguals*. These designations are ideal types; students may fall between categories or switch categories as they develop. The important point is that there is a lot of individual variation in second language acquisition.

Related to different types of bilingualism is the issue of language loss. It often happens that a child loses the native language in the process of acquiring English. At a certain point in the process, neither language may be up to age-appropriate levels. Other children manage to retain the first language as they acquire English. Whether the native language is subsequently lost or continues to develop depends on what happens in school, at home, and in the community.

Principles for Developing Language

Attachment N presents a list of guiding principles for language development that teachers should know. They include the importance of native language support and abundant opportunities to use the second language in meaningful communication.

Assessing for Needs and Achievement

Research has found many standardized tests to be invalid and unreliable instruments (Figueroa, 1990). Numerous studies have shown them to be culturally, economically, and gender biased. Moreover, many teachers teach to the test, leading them to emphasize lower-level thinking skills. As a consequence, these tests should not be used with second language learners.

Assessment, however, should be performed for two reasons: 1) to identify students who need special help; and 2) to document students' growth in capacity and competency. To accomplish the first objective, parents could fill out a survey about their child. In addition, school officials should interview parents about their child. Finally, observations and possibly recordings of the child using spontaneous speech should be made and analyzed. It should be kept in mind, however, that during such observations the child will not likely demonstrate all of the language abilities within his or her repertoire. In the end, a teacher's informed judgment about a student's capabilities is usually as accurate as a formal assessment instrument, and is many times more trustworthy.

By assessing student competency, teachers gain information that can be used to improve their instruction and help parents understand their children's developing skills, thereby allowing them to provide experiences that can more effectively support the teachers. Assessment of language ability should be carefully planned, following a list of desired language competencies in order to assess language as it is used in real life, that is, assessing functional language only. Along these lines, teachers and other staff can observe student behaviors in a non-intrusive manner, either during group work in class or during student recreational time. Some teachers may use a checklist and observe perhaps four students at a time, while others may prefer to record notes about significant student behavior for later examination. Overall, when teachers use authentic assessment techniques, such as portfolios, student work should be collected to resemble a video rather than snapshots of student abilities. Of course, this requires an additional time commitment from teachers. Nonetheless, time management is an important issue that every school needs to consider.

At this point, McLaughlin closed his session and the institute by thanking the audience for its participation and expressing his hope that the institute had been enlightening and productive for all the participants.

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Figueroa, R. (1990). Assessment of linguistic minority group children. In C. R. Reynolds & R. W. Kamphaus (Eds.), *Handbook of psychological and educational assessment of children: Intelligence and achievement.* New York: Gilford.

Biographic Information on Conference Presenters

Institute Keynote Speakers

Dr. Eugene García

Dr. Eugene E. García is Director of the Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, DC. He is former Dean of the Division of Social Sciences and Professor of Education and Psychology at the University of California, Santa Cruz. He also served as co-director of the National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning prior to his OBEMLA appointment. His professional contributions include over one hundred publications in the areas of language teaching, bilingual development, and effective schooling for linguistically and culturally diverse student populations.

Dang T. Pham

Dang T. Pham has been active in bilingual education and refugee and immigrant affairs for many years. He was appointed Deputy Director of the Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Languages Affairs, U.S. Department of Education, Washington, DC, in 1994. He is a Vietnamese native and a former bilingual education teacher at Brighton High School in the Boston public school system. Most recently, he served as Educational Programs Director for the Massachusetts Office for Refugees and Immigrants. He has been a guest speaker on refugee resettlement issues, community development, and cross-cultural issues at various conferences.

Institute Featured Speakers

Dr. Fred Genesee

Dr. Fred Genesee is Professor of Psychology at McGill University, Montreal, Canada and served as the 1994-95 President of the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) organization. He has carried out extensive research on alternative forms of bilingual education, in particular on second language immersion for majority language students. His other research interests include social psychology and cognitive and neuropsychological aspects of bilingualism.

Dr. Barry McLaughlin

Dr. Barry McLaughlin is Professor of Psychology at the University of California, Santa Cruz and Director of the National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning. He is the author of numerous publications on second language learning and pedagogy. His work supports the premise that children from diverse backgrounds enrich our schools.

Institute Plenary Speakers

Dr. Norma González is an assistant research anthropologist in the Bureau of Applied Research in Anthropology, Department of Anthropology, at the University of Arizona, Tucson. She is a former English as a second language teacher. Her research interests include educational anthropology, sociolinguistics, language socialization, household analysis, and gender issues. She has collaborated with Luis Moll and Carlos Velez-Ibañez on a project studying "funds of knowledge" and is co-author of *Teacher Research on Funds of Knowledge: Learning from Households* (1992).

Dr. Roland Tharp is Chair of the Board of Studies in Education and Professor of Education and Psychology at the University of California, Santa Cruz. He has conducted extensive research with the Kamehameha reading projects in Hawaii and with diverse Native American groups. He is the winner of the esteemed Grawemeyer Award (1993) and co-author of *Rousing Minds to Life: Teaching, Learning and Schooling in Social Contexts* (1988) with Ronald Gallimore.

Research Practitioner Sessions

Dr. Jana Echevarría is Associate Professor of Education at California State University, Long Beach. She is co-author of *Instructional Conversations in Special education Settings: Issues and accommodations* (1993).

Dr. Stephanie Dalton is Associate Director of the National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning. She is a teacher educator who has taught diverse students from first through twelfth grade. Her research interests include use of innovative pedagogy, such as instructional conversation, and the social organization of the classroom. She is collaborating with teachers and the principal at the Zuni Pueblo Middle School on effective pedagogy and classroom organization.

Biliteracy Institute Presenters

Pola Espinoza has been recognized for her effective teaching with culturally and linguistically diverse students. She is a member of the NCRCDSLL Advisory Board. She is currently teaching in a two-way bilingual program at Alianza Elementary School in the Pájaro Unified School District in Watsonville, CA. Her research interests include bilingualism and Mexican-American studies.

Erminda García has spent most of the past 20 years as a bilingual elementary school teacher in California, Arizona, and Utah. She is currently a consultant for teachers in the Washington, DC area. Her research interests include issues related to biliteracy and whole language instruction.

Noni Mendoza Reis has been an educator for 18 years and has taught from pre-school through university levels. She is co-author of the training module, "Becoming Culturally Responsive and Responsible Educators," developed through the California State Department of Education.

Panel Presenters

Effective Programs for Language Minority Students

Donna Christian is President of the Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) in Washington, DC. She is active in research, professional development for teachers, and in the development of professional reference materials for educators. She is a member of the Executive Committee of the National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning and conducts research on two-way bilingual education under NCRCDSLL's auspices.

Hugh Mehan is Professor of Sociology and Coordinator of Teacher Education at the University of California, San Diego. He is currently investigating the educational consequences of "untracking" as an alternative to compensatory education and remedial tracking for underachieving high school students, especially those from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds.

Roland Tharp is Chair of the Board of Studies in Education and Professor of Education and Psychology at the University of California, Santa Cruz. His current research addresses how instructional conversation affects learning in Native American students and the implications of this for school organization.

Teaching Academic Language In Content Areas

Nancy Rhodes is Co-Director of the Foreign Language Education and Testing Division at the Center for Applied Linguistics, Washington, DC. Her research interests include the academic language development of ESL students, authentic assessment, and foreign language teaching in the elementary school.

Deborah Short is Co-Director of the English Language and Multicultural Education Division at the Center for Applied Linguistics in Washington, DC. Her principle field of research has been the integration of language and content instruction. Her current project is looking at the integration of language and culture in middle school social studies.

Jeff Solomon is a research assistant at the Center for Applied Linguistics and a Ph.D. student in anthropology at The American University. His research interests include ethnography of education, classroom-based research, and discourse analysis.

Beth Warren and Ann Rosebery are Co-Directors of the Research Center at the Technical Education Research Center, a not-for-profit educational firm in Cambridge, MA. They are principal investigators of the *Cheche Konnen* project funded by the National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning and by the National Science Foundation. Their research focuses on issues of science teaching and learning in linguistic and cultural settings and on exploring a new approach to teacher professional development that integrates scientific and ethnographic inquiry as the basis for teacher research.

Introduction of Keynote and Plenary Speakers

Dr. Charles W. Case, Dean of the School of Education, University of Connecticut
Dr. Pertti J. Pelto, Professor Emeritus, University of Connecticut
Ms. Adnelly Marichal, Bilingual Education Program Coordinator, Hartford Public Schools
Ms. Evelyn Colon-LaFontaine, Coordinator of Language Arts, Consolidated Public Schools of New Britain
Dr. Judith Meagher, Associate Dean of the School of Education, University of Connecticut

Moderators for Institute Sessions

Ms. Maria Acosta, Bilingual Education Program Assistant Coordinator, Hartford Public Schools
Dr. Gladys Labas, Principal, Meriden Public Schools
Ms. Ana Ortiz, Title VII Doctoral Fellow, University of Connecticut
Mr. Ronald Rives, Bilingual Education Program Assistant Coordinator, Hartford Public Schools
Ms. Jean Romeno, Bilingual Education Director, Windham Public Schools
Mr. Ismael Torres, Title VII Fellow, University of Connecticut

Facilitators for Institute Sessions:

Ms. Maria Ballester
Mr. Jorge Lopez
Mr. Aldrefo Medina
Ms. Maria Ortiz-Medina
Mr. Raul Rivera-Colon
Mr. Al Vela
Ms. Della Bello
Ms. Maria Lozano
Ms. Esperanza Nugent
Ms. Lourdes Pieve
Ms. Doris Vasquez

ATTACHMENTS

A. Conditions for Learning

B. Interactive Journals

B-2. Interactive Writing Journal Assessment

C. Instructional Strategies to Support Literacy

D. Literature Studies

E. Percentage of Students Rated As Fluent on the English SOLOM

F. Elements of the Instructional Conversation

G. Direct Instruction/Instructional Conversation Comparison

H. Sample Features of Social Studies Language

I. Principles for Integrated Social Studies Materials

J. The Great Cycle of Social Sorting

K Differentiated Activity Settings

L. Organizing Classrooms for Diversity

M. Bilingual Types

N. Guiding Principles for Enhancing First and Second Language Development in Early Childhood

CONDITIONS for LEARNING*

(Cambourne model of literacy learning)

1. Immersion: In what ways do we immerse children in print?

2. Demonstration: In what ways do we demonstrate the conventions of reading and writing for children?

3. Expectations: What expectations do we project to our students regarding their potential to acquire language?

4. Responsibility: In what way do we extend responsibility to our students for their own learning of reading, writing, speaking, and listening?

5. Approximation: How do the learning contexts that we create encourage children to approximate as they read and write?

6. Employment: What opportunities are we providing students to engage with reading and writing during the day?

7. Response: What examples of meaningful responses do we provide children in response to their approximation at reading and writing?

* from Cambourne & Turbill (1987)

Attachment B

INTERACTIVE JOURNALS

Interactive journal writing is a context where children can write about what is important to them. They share their life stories and social cultural experiences they have had, and in return teachers are able to say through their written response, "What goes on in your life is important to me!" Interactive journal writing also promotes the development of written demonstrations that are made by the teacher as she or he responds to the child's entry. If children write and teachers respond on a daily basis a developmental record of writing and thinking is created. The key to this instructional strategy is the shared interaction that helps the child and teacher grow to know each other in an authentic literacy event.

PROCEDURES:

1. Introduce interactive journal writing by asking 1-4 children to illustrate an activity they have just participated in (e.g., a lego bridge building experience); or

Show an interactive journal from a child from a previous year or discuss how the students may have previously experienced journal writing.

2. Demonstrate what children should do during interactive journal writing: write the date, think about the topic, maybe draw, and then write!

3. The teacher, para-professional, and/or student asks the child to read their entry orally. The teacher (or more competent other) responds to the meaning of the entry in both oral and written text.

4. The child then responds orally to the written demonstration that has been made during the interaction; or

If children are able to write and read their entries across time, the written response is done in another context (after school, at home, etc.) by a more competent other. At another time the child reads and responds to the written response - interaction has occurred!

5. The interactive journal entries become a record of the child's writing development of both content and mechanics. Both the teacher and student are able to use this authentic assessment to inform instruction and guide progress in writing.

The following list includes what supports the success of interactive journals.

1. Every entry must have a response.
2. Response is given to content before mechanics of the language in all entries.
3. The type of question results in the type of response.
4. Children have ownership of the topic, amount, genre, and language of the entry.
5. The type of paper is important.
6. The more often children engage in interactive journal writing the more often you are able to respond to their personal ideas as well as demonstrate literacy conventions.
7. Interactive asks for both written and oral responses by both the writer and the reader or the child and the teacher.

Along with the description and implementation suggestions, assessment matrixes have been included to help in gathering the authentic information that is collected over time.

INTERACTIVE WRITING JOURNAL ASSESSMENT

FIRST GRADE

Name_____

	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	April	May
MECHANICS: CONCEPTUAL									
1. Level of Development									
2. Takes Risks									
3. Reads Entry									
4. L and/or L									
5. Spacing									
6. Letter Formation									
7. Capitalization									
8. Punctuation									
9. Spelling: Estimated									
Conventional									
CONTENT: ANEDOCTAL									

Levels of Development Key

C - controls
D - developing
NE - no evidence
B - beginning

PS: draws>writes symbols
S: letter strings>syllabic
SA: estimated spelling
A: estimated>conventional

Attachment B-2

Attachment C

Instructional Strategies to Support Literacy

Instructional Strategy	Language Concepts
	Exploration
Interactive Journals	Children write daily about what is important to them and thus learn about writing conventions through function. Teacher responds, modeling the reading and writing processes.
Listening Center	Children read along with the narrator, thereby practicing book handling skills as well as gaining a deeper understanding of the text as it is read and re-read. Children develop memory for text and begin to focus more on the print.
Writing Center	Children choose to practice their understanding of writing by writing texts, signs, letters, etc.
DEAR	Children self-select books daily to read alone or with peers over an extended period of time. Teacher models reading as well.
	Circle
Writing Outloud	Teacher models the writing process as she/he verbalizes what is being written. This demonstrates the mechanics of writing through an authentic event such as brainstorming, messages, agenda, etc.
Storytelling	Children hear story language and develop a greater understanding of the nature of reading; teacher demonstrates the intonation, rhythm & fluency of an expert reader.

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Shared Reading	Teacher models the reading process using predictable text and points to the print. Children are asked to join along in subsequent re-readings.
Roll Call Variations	Children develop phonemic awareness and letter/sound correspondence through their names.
Talking Calendar	Children predict what the message says by using the 3 cueing systems: syntactic, semantic and graphophonemic.
	Research Groups
Literature Conversations	Children share their responses, ideas, questions, etc. to a text with their peers and teacher. Key concepts as well as story elements are discussed. Children gain a deeper understanding of the text through discussion.
Story Innovations •Wordless •Predictable •Collaborative •Cumulative	Children learn to write by writing and read by reading by creating their own student generated texts. Children go through the writing process stages of pre-writing, writing, response and publishing.

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Literature Studies

Literature studies is a social event that encourages children to collaboratively share a reading experience they have had with a particular book. During the intensive study of the story, children have access to new understandings and experiences. The literature study group works together to construct meaning, share interpretations and initiate responses. The teacher works alongside the children negotiating meaning as well as sharing their own personal responses. Children also use a reflection log to recall what in the text initiated their personal responses and what other meaning they gain from their active participation in the group.

Teachers make available multiple copies of at least three selections. This selection of books is created so that the array reflects levels and interest that may be grouped by theme or author. Children then choose which book they would like to study intensively. They use post-its and reflection logs to recall important pages or text, to keep notes of personal reactions to the book.

PROCEDURES:

1. Begin by selecting 5 - 7 children who have selected a common piece of literature to be studied. (AVOID!! ability grouping!!!)

2. First, examine the title page and illustration. Ask children to predict what the story might be about. Ask children to use prior knowledge and past experiences in suggesting the story line.

3. Negotiate what will be read prior to the next meeting. This can recorded in their reflection logs.

4. Begin the study with the group by asking each member to share their personal reflection. Often children use their post-its or their written comments to help them recall their responses.

5. As emergent themes, questions, opinions, comments are made the teacher records these. This documentation both helps the study and informs instruction.

6. During the dialogue the teacher restates or expands on specific comments or themes that have surfaced and asks for further discussion.

7. At the end of the first meeting, the group along with the teacher discuss further reading or the study of a specific literature element for the next meeting.

8. At the literature study proceeds!!!

9. Both the written documentation of the meetings by the teacher and the written reflection in the students' reflection logs become the authentic assessment that can be evaluated by both teacher and student.

Literature Study

According to the work of Peterson and Eeds (two teacher-researchers), during their collaborative discussions, the personal responses that children share fall into four distinct response groups.

> Personal experiences are shared.
> Opinions and impressions are stated.
> Comparing and contrasting to other literature pieces occurs.
> Discussion of literary elements specific to the story surface.

This includes:	character analysis	setting	plot
	tension	theme	time
	point of view	mood	metaphors

Which of the 12 optimal conditions can you name in this instructional strategy?

REFERENCE:

Peterson, R., & Eeds, M. A. (1990). *Grand Conversations*. Scholastic.

Percentage of Students Rated As Fluent on the English SOLOM* by Language Background, Grade Level, and School Site

1991-92 Cohort

School Site Grade Level	LEP	EP
School 1		
First	73	100
Second	60	100
Third	80	100
Fourth	90	100
Fifth	72	100
Sixth	100	100
School 2		
First	44	100
Second	80	80
Third	86	100
Fourth	100	90
Fifth	100	94
School 3		
First	52	97
Second	64	100
Third	77	100
Fourth	75	100
Fifth	93	100
Sixth	96	100
School 5A		
First	24	100
Second	39	94
Third	38	100
School 5B		
First	18	100
Second	25	100
School 6A		
First	14	100
Second	38	100
School 6B		
First	47	100

* Student Oral Language Observation Matrix

Lindholm, K., & Aclan, Z. (1993). *California DBE projects, project-wide evaluation report, 1991-1992 (Year 2).* Report prepared for the California State Department of Education, Bilingual Education Office, San José.

Elements of the Instructional Conversation

Instructional Elements

1. **Thematic focus.** The teacher selects a theme or idea to serve as a starting point to focus the discussion and has a general plan for how the theme will unfold, including how to "chunk" the text to permit optimal exploration of the theme.

2. **Activation and use of background and relevant schemata.** The teacher either "hooks into" or provides students with pertinent background knowledge and relevant schemata necessary for understanding a text. Background knowledge and schemata are then woven into the discussion that follows.

3. **Direct teaching.** When necessary, the teacher provides direct teaching of a skill or concept.

4. **Promotion of more complex language and expression.** The teacher elicits more extended student contributions by using a variety of elicitation techniques, for example, invitations to expand ("Tell me more about____"), questions ("What do you mean by____?"), restatements ("In other words,____"), and pauses.

5. **Promotion of bases for statements or positions.** The teacher promotes students' use of text, pictures, and reasoning to support an argument or position. Without overwhelming students, the teacher probes for the bases of students' statements: "How do you know?" "What makes you think that?" "Show us where it says____."

Conversational Elements

6. **Few "known-answer" questions.** Much of the discussion centers on questions and answers for which there might be more than one correct answer.

7. **Responsiveness to student contributions.** While having an initial plan and maintaining the focus and coherence of the discussion, the teacher is also responsive to students' statements and the opportunities they provide.

8. **Connected discourse.** The discussion is characterized by multiple, interactive, connected turns; succeeding utterances build upon and extend previous ones.

9. **A challenging, but non-threatening, atmosphere.** The teacher creates a "zone of proximal development," where a challenging atmosphere is balanced by a positive affective climate. The teacher is more collaborator than evaluator and creates an atmosphere that challenges students and allows them to negotiate and construct the meaning of the text.

10. **General participation, including self-selected turns.** The teacher encourages general participation among students. The teacher does not hold exclusive right to determine who talks, and students are encouraged to volunteer or otherwise influence the selection of speaking turns.

Goldenberg, C. (1991). *Instructional conversations and their classroom application* (Educational Practice Report No. 2). Santa Cruz, CA and Washington, DC: National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning.

Direct Instruction/Instructional Conversation Comparison

Direct Instruction	Instructional Conversation
• teacher models	• teacher facilitates
• exact, specific answers	• draw from prior or background knowledge
• skill-directed	• many different ideas encouraged
• easier to evaluate	• build on information provided by students
• step-by-step systematic instruction	• more student involvement
• teacher-centered	• establish common foundation of understanding
• guided and independent practice following instruction	• extensive discussion
• no extensive discussion	• fewer black and white responses
• goal is mastery after each step	• guided understanding
• check for understanding	

Goldenberg, C. (1991). Instructional conversations and their classroom application (Educational Practice Report No. 2). Santa Cruz, CA and Washington, DC: National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning.

Attachment H

SAMPLE FEATURES OF SOCIAL STUDIES LANGUAGE

Tools of Social Studies
- textbook
- map
- globe
- timeline
- graph, chart

Related Language
- on page..., at the top, chapter, illustration
- north, south, east, west, land features
- latitude, longitude, continents
- years, dates
- title, percent, bar, pie, column, heading

Famous People/Events
- Samuel Adams
- Mercy Otis Warren
- Stamp Act
- 2nd Continental Congress
- Lexington and Concord

Related/Technical Vocabulary
- rebel, speech
- boycott correspondence
- taxes, tar and feather
- represent, delegates
- militia, musket

Concepts
- propaganda
- patriotism
- self-governing
- protest
- rebellion
- independence
- taxation
- justice
- liberty

Language Functions

Students and Teachers
- explain
- describe
- define
- give example
- sequence
- compare
- evaluate
- justify

Teachers
- ask recall questions
- give directions
- encourage
- clarify/restate
- rephrase
- extend
- review
- preview

Language Skills Tasks
- read expository prose — find main idea, supporting details
- take notes — present on oral report
- conduct research — write a cause-and-effect essay

Syntax
- Simple past — Sequence words
- Historical present — Active voice

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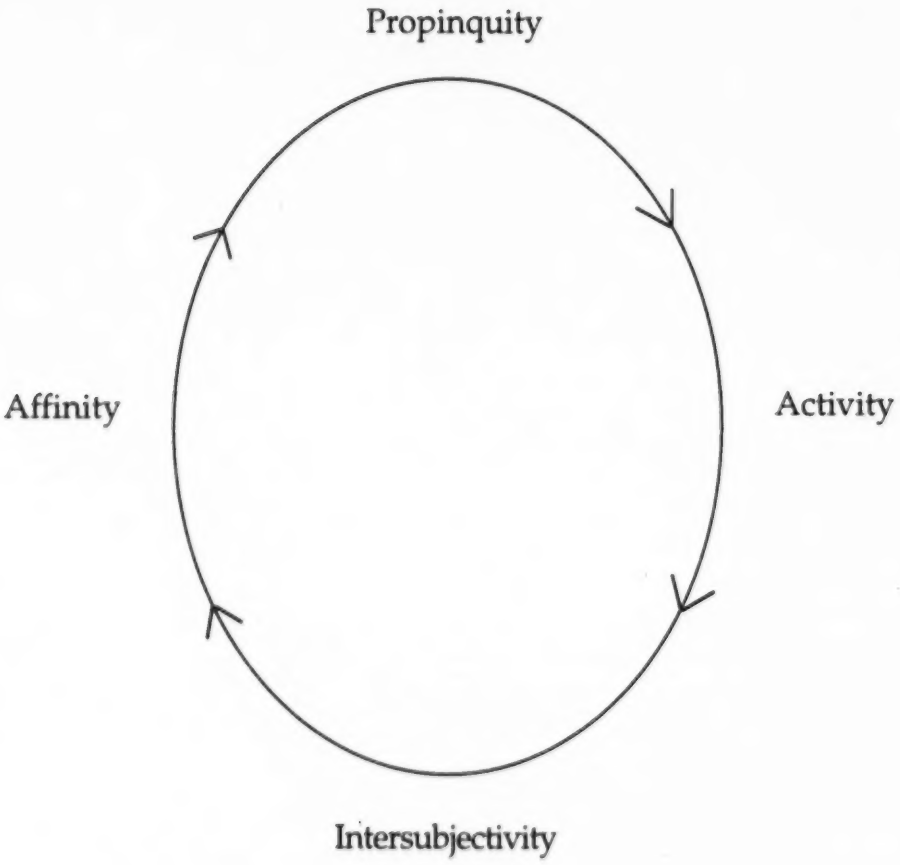
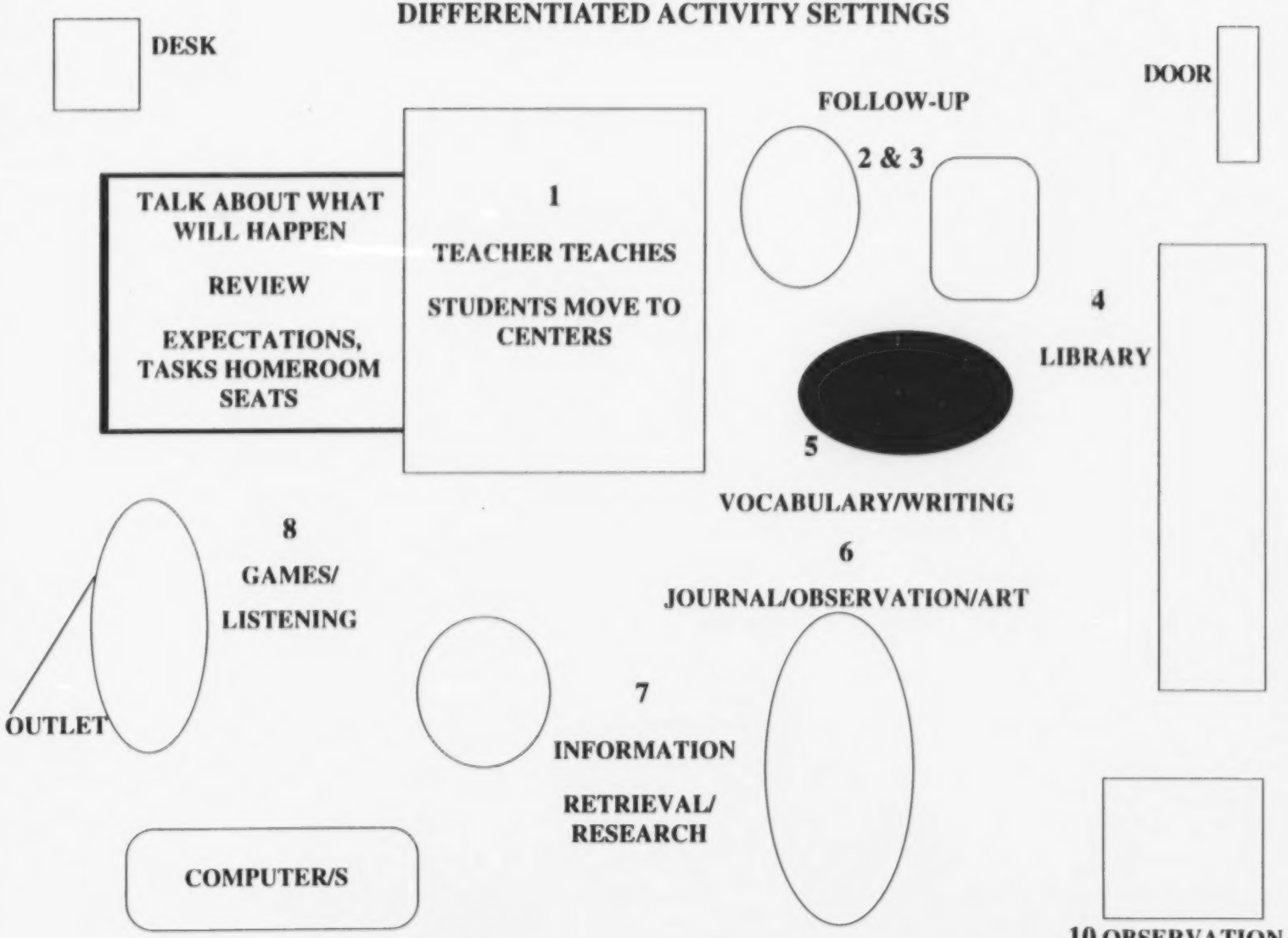
PRINCIPLES FOR INTEGRATED SOCIAL STUDIES MATERIALS

1. Offer opportunities to communicate about social studies - oral, written, physical, or pictorial.
2. Make connections between the content being taught and students' real-life experiences.
3. Tap the students as resources of information about their native countries.
4. Activate students' background knowledge.
5. Provide hands-on and performance-based activities.
6. Promote critical thinking and study skill development.
7. Pay attention to language issues and make accommodations that will help students learn the language of social studies.
8. Use graphic organizers to help students represent information and identify relationships.
9. Incorporate cooperative learning activities and seek peer tutors among classmates.
10. Be process-oriented and provide modeling for students to make transition to academic tasks.
11. Open discussion to different perspective of history.
12. Adjust instruction for the different learning styles of the students.

THE GREAT CYCLE OF SOCIAL SORTING




DIFFERENTIATED ACTIVITY SETTINGS
DESK
DOOR
FOLLOW-UP
2 & 3
TALK ABOUT WHAT WILL HAPPEN
REVIEW
EXPECTATIONS, TASKS HOMEROOM SEATS
1
TEACHER TEACHES
STUDENTS MOVE TO CENTERS
4
LIBRARY
5
VOCABULARY/WRITING
6
JOURNAL/OBSERVATION/ART
8
GAMES/
LISTENING
OUTLET
7
INFORMATION
RETRIEVAL/
RESEARCH
COMPUTER/S
10 OBSERVATION

ORGANIZING CLASSROOMS FOR DIVERSITY

MULTIPLE ACTIVITY SETTINGS (AS)

The following guidelines for diversifying activity settings in the classroom are practical. Each classroom will have special features to consider.

____ Activity setting (AS) for teacher to work with students in large group.

____ AS for teacher to work with students in small groups, dyads, or individually.

____ AS for students to work in small groups, dyads, or individually.

____ Furniture is suitable for AS content:
____ a. Games may be placed on rug.
____ b. Literacy activities need table and chairs.
____ c. Art and other activities need sink or chalkboard.
____ d. AS will seat from 2 to 6 students.

____ AS stations are visible from teacher's positions.

____ Storage for materials and supplies is available for each AS, such as shelves, bookcases.

____ Quiet AS separated from potentially noisy ones.

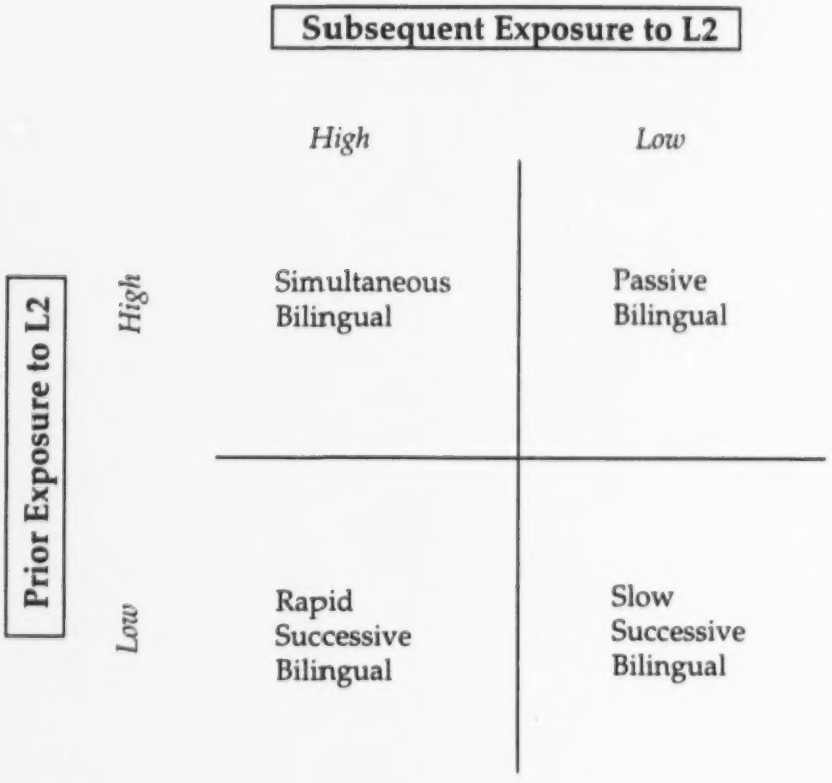
____ Traffic patterns provide for easy movement between AS.

____ Outlets are nearby for tape recorders, other equipment.

____ Space is available for posting materials or needed equipment like chart stands.

____ Equipment is available for placing individual assignments, storing individual folders.

Bilingual Types



Guiding Principles for Enhancing First and Second Language Development in Early Childhood

- Language is used to communicate.
- Language flourishes best in a language-rich environment.
- Children come to learn second languages in many different ways.
- The more opportunities children have to speak, the more their language will develop.
- There are many ways in which educators and parents can assist children in developing their language.
- Language develops best when meaning is negotiated.
- Children should be encouraged to experiment with language.
- It is especially important to support the child's home language when the child is receiving a great deal of exposure to English.
- In some bilingual children, code-switching is a normal language phenomenon.
- There is an ebb and flow to children's bilingualism; it is rare for both languages to be perfectly balanced.
- Educators need to be aware of different cultural patterns in language use.
- A physical environment that contains a lot of written material will assist children to develop pre-literacy competencies.

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